

Heritability and Preliminary Genome-Wide Linkage Analysis of Arsenic Metabolites in Urine

Maria Tellez-Plaza, Matthew O. Gribble,
V. Saroja Voruganti, Kevin A. Francesconi, Walter Goessler,
Jason G. Umans, Ellen K. Silbergeld, Eliseo Guallar,
Nora Franceschini, Kari E. North, Wen H. Kao,
Jean W. MacCluer, Shelley A. Cole, Ana Navas-Acien

http://dx.doi.org/10.1289/ehp.1205305

Online 15 January 2013



National Institutes of Health
U.S. Department of Health and Human Services

Heritability and Preliminary Genome-Wide Linkage Analysis of Arsenic Metabolites in Urine

Maria Tellez-Plaza,^{1,2,3} Matthew O. Gribble,^{1,3} V. Saroja Voruganti,⁴ Kevin A. Francesconi,⁵ Walter Goessler,⁵ Jason G. Umans,^{6,7} Ellen K. Silbergeld,³ Eliseo Guallar,^{1,2,8,9} Nora Franceschini,¹⁰ Kari E. North,¹⁰ Wen H. Kao,^{1,8} Jean W. MacCluer,⁴ Shelley A. Cole,⁴ Ana Navas-Acien^{1,3,8,9}

¹Department of Epidemiology, Johns Hopkins University Bloomberg School of Public Health, Baltimore, Maryland, USA

²Area of Epidemiology and Population Genetics, National Center for Cardiovascular Research (CNIC), Madrid, Spain

³Department of Environmental Health Sciences, Johns Hopkins University Bloomberg School of Public Health, Baltimore, Maryland, USA

⁴Department of Genetics, Texas Biomedical Research Institute, San Antonio, Texas, USA

⁵Institute of Chemistry – Analytical Chemistry, Karl-Franzens University Graz, Austria

⁶MedStar Health Research Institute, Hyattsville, Maryland, USA

⁷Georgetown-Howard Universities Center for Clinical and Translational Science, Washington DC, USA

⁸Welch Center for Prevention, Epidemiology and Clinical Research, Johns Hopkins Medical Institutions, Baltimore, Maryland, USA

⁹Department of Medicine, Johns Hopkins Medical Institutions, Baltimore, Maryland, USA

¹⁰Department of Epidemiology, School of Public Health, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, North Carolina, USA

Address Correspondence to:

Ana Navas-Acien, MD, PhD

Departments of Environmental Health Sciences and Epidemiology

Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health

615 North Wolfe Street, Room W7513D

Baltimore, Maryland 21205

Phone: 410-502 4267, Fax: 410-955-1811

E-Mail: anavas@jhsph.edu

Running title: Genetic determinants of arsenic metabolism

Key words: American Indians, arsenic metabolism, arsenic species, determinants, heritability, linkage scan, Strong Heart Study

Acknowledgments: Supported by grants from the National Heart Lung and Blood Institute (R01HL090863 and by SHS grants HL41642, HL41652, HL41654 and HL65520) and from the National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences (R01ES021367 and P30ES03819). Maria Tellez-Plaza was supported by a Rio Hortega training grant (Funds for Research in Health Sciences, Ministry of Science and Innovation, Spain). M. Gribble was supported by a T32 training grant from the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute (5T32HL007024). This investigation was conducted in part in facilities constructed with support from the National Center for Research Resources (C06 RR13556 and C06 RR017515).

Conflict of interest: The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

ABBREVIATIONS:

AQP3: aquaglyeroporin 3 gene

AS3MT: Arsenic (III) methyltransferase gene

BMI: body mass index

DMA: dimethylarsinate

EHMT1: histone methyltransferase gene

iAs: inorganic arsenic

HPLC: high performance liquid chromatography

IBD: identity-by-descent

ICPMS: inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry

IQR: interquartile range

LOD: logarithm (to the base of 10) of the odds

MMA: monomethylarsonate

METTL20: methyltransferase-like 20 gene

N6AMT1: N-6 adenine-specific DNA methyltransferase gene

PRDM9: PR domain zinc finger protein 9 gene

QTL: quantitative trait locus

RNMT: RNA methyltransferase

RRP8: ribosome RNA-processing protein 8 gene

SHFS: Strong Heart Family Study

SHS: Strong Heart Study

SOLAR: Sequential Oligogenic Linkage Analysis Routines (SOLAR)

STR: Short tandem repeat

ABSTRACT

Background: Arsenic (III) methyltransferase (AS3MT) has been related to urine arsenic metabolites in association studies. Other genes might play a role in arsenic metabolism and excretion.

Objective: To evaluate genetic determinants of urine arsenic metabolites in American Indian adults from the Strong Heart Study (SHS).

Methods: We evaluated heritability of urine arsenic metabolites [% inorganic arsenic (iAs), % monomethylarsonate (MMA), and % dimethylarsinate (DMA)] in 2,907 SHS participants with urine arsenic measurements and at least one relative within the cohort. We conducted a preliminary linkage analysis in a subset of 487 participants with available genotypes on ~400 short tandem repeat markers using a general pedigree variance component approach for localizing quantitative trait loci (QTL).

Results: The median (interquartile range) for %iAs, %MMA and %DMA were 7.7% (5.4, 10.7%), 13.6% (10.5, 17.1%) and 78.4% (72.5, 83.1%), respectively. The estimated heritability was 53% for %iAs, 50% for %MMA and 59% for %DMA. After adjustment for sex, age, smoking, body mass index, alcohol, region and total urine arsenic concentrations, LOD scores indicated suggestive evidence for genetic linkage with QTLs influencing urine arsenic metabolites on chromosomes 9 (LOD=2.05 for % iAs and 2.10 for % MMA), 5 (LOD=2.03 for % iAs) and 11 (LOD=1.94 for %iAs). A peak for % DMA on chromosome 10 within 2 megabases of *AS3MT* had an LOD=1.80.

Conclusions: This population-based family study in American Indian communities supports a genetic contribution to variation in the distribution of arsenic metabolites in urine, and potentially the involvement of genes beyond *AS3MT*.

BACKGROUND

Exposure to inorganic arsenic (iAs) from water, food and ambient air is widespread (Franklin et al. 2008; Gilbert-Diamond et al. 2011; Nordstrom 2002). Humans metabolize iAs (arsenate and arsenite) to methylated compounds [predominantly monomethylarsonate (MMA) and dimethylarsinate (DMA)] that are largely excreted in urine together with iAs (Cullen and Reimer 1989; Naranmandura et al. 2006; Vahter 2002). In human populations, the average distribution of arsenic metabolites in urine is ~10-30% iAs, ~10-20%MMA and ~60-80% DMA (Chiou et al. 1997; Gamble et al. 2005; Gomez-Rubio et al. 2012; Hopenhayn-Rich et al. 1996b; Vahter 2000). There is, however, substantial inter-individual variation in the distribution of urine arsenic metabolites. Understanding the determinants of arsenic metabolism is important because differences in arsenic methylation patterns in urine have been associated with differential risk of skin lesions, cancer and cardiovascular disease in several populations exposed to arsenic in drinking water (Chen et al. 2003; Del Razo et al. 1997; Hsueh et al. 1997; Kile et al. 2011; Steinmaus et al. 2006; Wu et al. 2006; Yu et al. 2000).

Polymorphisms in arsenic (III) methyltransferase (*AS3MT*) have been consistently associated with urine arsenic methylation patterns in populations from Argentina (Schlawicke et al. 2007; Schlawicke et al. 2009), Chile (Hernandez et al. 2008), Mexico (Gomez-Rubio et al. 2010; Meza et al. 2005), and Central Europe (Lindberg et al. 2007). Variation near the *AS3MT* gene has also been recently associated with arsenic metabolism in a genome-wide association study from Bangladesh (Pierce et al. 2012). Functional studies have confirmed the relevance of *AS3MT* in the methylation of arsenic (Chen et al. 2011; Drobna et al. 2006; Thomas et al. 2004; Wood et al. 2006). Those studies, however, also suggest that other genes, in addition to non-

genetic factors, may contribute to arsenic methylation and distribution in human tissues, although the genes involved remain largely unknown. Genome wide genetic approaches may contribute to the discovery of genes related to variation in urine arsenic metabolites. Moreover, while arsenic metabolism shows evidence for familial aggregation (Chung et al. 2002), the heritability of urine arsenic methylation patterns has not been evaluated.

The Strong Heart Study (SHS) is a population-based prospective cohort study funded by the National Heart, Lung and Blood Institute to evaluate cardiovascular disease and its risk factors, including genetic and environmental determinants, in 13 US American Indian communities from Arizona, Oklahoma and North and South Dakota (Lee et al. 1990). Some of these communities are known to be exposed to arsenic in drinking water (Navas-Acien et al. 2009). In this study, we first evaluated the heritability of urine arsenic methylation patterns in SHS participants who had at least one relative within the cohort. In a subset of the population with genome-wide short tandem repeat (STR) markers available, we conducted a preliminary study to evaluate the presence of genetic loci associated with the distribution of urine arsenic metabolites by conducting a genome-wide quantitative trait locus (QTL) linkage scan.

METHODS

Study population

From 1989 to 1991, all men and women 45 to 74 years of age from selected communities in Arizona and Oklahoma were invited to participate in the SHS (Lee et al. 1990). In North and South Dakota, a cluster sampling technique was used. Of all individuals invited, 62% agreed to participate. Participants were similar to non-participants in age, body mass index, and self-reported frequency of diabetes. Women were more likely to participate than men. Starting in

1998, the Strong Heart Family Study (SHFS) recruited extended family members ≥18 years old of original SHS participants to study genes that contribute to cardiometabolic risk in American Indian populations (North et al. 2003). For the SHFS, families who had at least 5 living siblings including 3 original SHS participants were invited and parents, spouses, offspring, spouses of offspring and grandchildren were enrolled to build extended pedigrees. The SHFS genotyped genome-wide STR markers in all participants.

Urine metals, including arsenic species inorganic arsenic, MMA and DMA, were measured in 3,974 participants who participated in the SHS baseline visit (1989-1991) (Scheer et al. 2012). For the present analysis we excluded one participant missing total arsenic and one participant missing inorganic arsenic concentrations. We further excluded 222 participants with %iAs, %MMA or %DMA below the limit of detection. We also excluded 5 participants missing information on smoking, 9 participants missing information on alcohol consumption, 16 participants missing body mass index measurement, 1 participant missing education and 5 participants missing urine creatinine, leaving a sample size of 3,714 SHS participants. Among those, 2,907 SHS participants had at least 1 relative within the cohort, allowing heritability analysis and 487 were also SHFS participants with STR marker information for the linkage analysis.

The Indian Health Service Institutional Review Board, the institutional review boards of the participating institutions and the 13 participating tribes approved the SHS and SHFS protocol and consent forms. All participants provided informed consent when enrolled into the SHS, and the current heritability and linkage study is covered by the original SHS consent form, as arsenic is a potential cardiovascular risk factor. In addition, this study was specifically approved by the Strong Heart Study Publications and Presentations Committee and by the participating tribes.

Urine arsenic

Spot urine samples were collected in 1989-91, frozen within 1-2 hours of collection, and stored at -80°C at the Penn Medical Laboratory, MedStar Health Research Institute (Hyattsville, MD and Washington, DC, USA) (Lee et al. 1990). In 2009, up to 1.0 mL of urine from each participant was transported on dry ice to the Trace Element Laboratory of the Institute of Chemistry-Analytical Chemistry, Karl Franzens University (Graz, Austria). There, total arsenic concentrations in the urine samples were measured by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICPMS) (Agilent 7700x ICPMS, Agilent Technologies, Waldbronn, Germany), and arsenic species were determined by high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC; Agilent 1100) coupled to ICPMS, which served as the arsenic selective detector (HPLC/ICPMS). The analytical methods used to determine urine arsenic concentrations have been described in detail (Scheer et al. 2012). The limits of detection were 0.2 µg/L for total arsenic, and 0.1 µg/L for iAs, MMA, DMA, and for arsenobetaine plus other cations. Participants with iAs, MMA and DMA below the limits of detection were excluded from this analysis (5.3% for iAs, 0.7% for MMA, 0.03% for DMA) as it is not possible to evaluate arsenic metabolism with undetectable urine arsenic biomarkers. An in-house reference urine and the NIES No 18 *Human urine* from the National Institute for Environmental Studies, Ibaraki, Japan, were analyzed together with the samples. The inter-assay coefficients of variation for the inhouse reference urine for total arsenic, inorganic arsenic, MMA, DMA, and arsenobetaine plus other cations were 4.4%, 6.0%, 6.5%, 5.9% and 6.5%, respectively.

Urine arsenic data were transmitted to the Texas Biomedical Research Institute (previously known as Southwest Foundation for Biomedical Research) where they were transferred to the pedigree data management system PEDSYS (Dyke 1999).

Demographic and lifestyle assessment

Baseline sociodemographic, life-style and anthropometric information was obtained through interview and physical examination conducted by trained nurses and medical assistants (Lee et al. 1990). The standardized in-person questionnaire included sociodemographic data (age, sex, education) and smoking status (never, current, former). Body mass index (BMI) was estimated by dividing measured weight by measured height squared (kg/m²).

Short tandem repeat markers

DNA from white cells was isolated and stored at the Texas Biomedical Research Institute (San Antonio, Texas). Nearly 400 STR markers, spaced, on average 10 centimorgans (cM) apart (range 2.4 to 24.1 cM, see Supplemental Material, Table S3), were genotyped using ABI PRISM Linkage Mapping Set-MD10 version 2.5 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). Individual polymerase chain reaction products were loaded into an ABI PRISM 377 Genetic Analyzer for laser-based automated genotyping. Genotypes were assigned using the Genotyper software system (Applied Biosystems). Pedigree relationships were verified and likely genotyping errors were detected using PREST software (Pedigree Relationship Statistical Tests)(McPeek and Sun 2000; Sun et al. 2002) and SimWalk2 (Sobel et al. 2002). Mendelian inconsistencies and unlikely double recombinants in marker genotypes were removed with an overall blanking rate <1% in the total study population. The average heterozygosity was 0.69 for Arizona, 0.76 for North and South Dakota and 0.74 for Oklahoma.

Statistical Analysis

Descriptive analysis. To evaluate urine arsenic methylation and excretion patterns, we computed the proportion of iAs, of MMA and of DMA by dividing the concentration of each

species over the sum of all 3 species and multiplying by 100 (%iAs, %MMA and %DMA). The median (interquartile range) percentages of urine arsenic species were reported for the overall population and according to age (\leq 55 and \geq 55 years), sex (men and women), education (\leq 12 and \geq 12 years completed), body mass index (\leq 30 and \geq 30 kg/m²), smoking (never, former, current), alcohol consumption (never, former, current), and study region (Arizona, Oklahoma, and the Dakotas).

Heritability. We estimated the heritability of %iAs, %MMA and %DMA using a general pedigree variance components decomposition-based method as conducted by the software Sequential Oligogenic Linkage Analysis Routines (SOLAR) version 4.4.0 (Blangero et al. 2012). A detailed description of the statistical methods used to estimate heritability is provided in Supplemental Material (see Supplemental Material, page 2). In brief, SOLAR incorporates the information contained in participant pedigrees to obtain maximum likelihood estimates for the proportion of unexplained variance due to additive genetic effects from polygenes (σ_g^2) and the proportion of variance due to unmeasured environmental covariates, measurement error, and non-additive genetic effects (σ_g^2). Heritability (σ_g^2) is defined as the proportion of unexplained variance in the observed distribution of the percent of each urine arsenic species that is attributable to additive genetic effects, or σ_g^2 0. The p-values for σ_g^2 1 are computed from a likelihood ratio test comparing the model in which the σ_g^2 1 component of the unexplained variance is estimated to a model where σ_g^2 2 constrained to be zero, following a 1/2:1/2 mixture of chi square distributions with 1 df and a point mass at zero (Amos 1994).

Initially, the percentage of each urine arsenic species was converted to an odds and introduced in a linear variance component model as a logit-transformed dependent variable adjusted for age, sex, age², age*sex and age²*sex, education (<12 years of education, \ge 12 years

of education), BMI (< 30 kg/m², ≥ 30 kg/m²), smoking status (never, former, current smokers), alcohol drinking status (never, former, current drinkers), region (Arizona, Oklahoma and North and South Dakota), and total urine arsenic concentrations. To reduce kurtosis, residuals from the linear variance component model were transformed following an inverse Gaussian transformation and introduced as dependent variables in a second stage variance component linear regression with no covariables. A household component of the variance was explored to account for "shared environment" among relatives living in the same household, but was not retained in the final model as it did not influence the heritability estimates (data not shown). We performed heritability analysis for the population as a whole, and stratified by region.

Linkage scan. A multipoint QTL linkage analysis based on variance components decomposition-based methods was implemented in SOLAR version 4.4.0 (Almasy and Blangero 1998; Blangero et al. 2012), building on the heritability models described above by including additional variance components for QTLs based on multipoint identity-by-descent (IBD) matrices (see details on model formulation in the Supplemental Material, Statistical Methods). Multipoint IBD matrices were computed using the software Loki (Heath 1997; Heath et al. 1997) by using STR marker map positions obtained based on the DeCode map.(US National Heart Lung and Blood Institute 2012) At each chromosomal location SOLAR conducts likelihood ratio tests comparing a model which estimates the unexplained variance attributable to a potential QTL vs. a model which constrains the unexplained variance attributable to the potential QTL to be equal to zero. The tests at each chromosomal location are reported as LOD ("logarithm (to the base of 10) of the odds") scores in favor of genetic linkage with a QTL. LOD scores of 1.9 and 3.3 are considered suggestive and significant evidence for a QTL, respectively (Lander and Kruglyak 1995). To evaluate if the linkage findings may have been due to chance, we conducted

an adjustment analysis in order to calculate an empirical LOD score for each urine arsenic metabolite. The empirical LOD scores were computed by multiplying the original LOD scores with a correction constant. The correction constant is calculated when a fully informative marker, not associated with the phenotype, is simulated and goes through ~10,000 replicates, IBDs are calculated for this marker and the LOD score is computed for linkage of this phenotype to this marker. In this analysis, if the original LOD score is similar to the adjusted LOD score, the possibility of findings due to chance alone is low.

Sensitivity analyses. Several sensitivity analyses were conducted for both the heritability and the linkage scan. First, we adjusted for BMI as continuous rather than categorical. Second, we added an interaction term for BMI (categorical)*sex. Third, we further adjusted for urine selenium. Fourth, we accounted for urine dilution by adjusting for urine creatinine rather than by dividing by urine creatinine. Fifth, we repeated the analyses without accounting for urine dilution. The heritability and linkage scan analyses remained unchanged (data not shown).

RESULTS

Descriptive analysis

Median (interquartile range [IQR]) total urine arsenic concentrations were 18.5 (12.5, 27.2) μg/g in Arizona, 8.2 (5.6, 12.9) μg/g in Oklahoma and 12.5 (8.2, 18.9) μg/g in North and South Dakota (Table 1). The median (IQR) urine arsenobetaine concentrations were 0.7 (0.4, 1.6) μg/g, consistent with the low self-reported seafood consumption in the study population. The median (IQR) for %iAs, %MMA and %DMA were 7.7 (5.4, 10.7)%, 13.6 (10.5, 17.1)% and 78.4 (72.5, 83.1)%, respectively, with no differences by total urine arsenic concentrations above and below the median (Table 2). The %MMA was higher in men compared to women, in

participants from North and South Dakota compared to other regions, in participants with BMI <30 kg/m² compared to ≥30 kg/m², and current smokers compared to non-smokers (Table 2). Urine arsenic levels and participant characteristics in the subsample of 487 participants with information for the linkage analysis were similar to those of the larger study sample included in the heritability analysis (see Supplemental Material, Tables S1 and S2). Total urine arsenic concentrations in the full study sample were weakly correlated with %iAs and %MMA, but were not correlated with %DMA (Supplemental Material, Figure S1). The %iAs and %MMA were moderately positively correlated (Spearman correlation coefficient 0.46). The %DMA was strongly negatively correlated with %iAs and %MMA (Spearman correlation coefficients -0.81 and -0.87, respectively).

Heritability

After accounting for age, sex, education, smoking, alcohol consumption, BMI and region, the estimated residual heritability was 53% for %iAs, 50% for %MMA and 59% for %DMA, with similar estimates when stratified by study region (Table 3).

Linkage scan

We found suggestive evidence in favor of QTLs for %iAs on chromosomes 5 (LOD=2.03 at 39 cM, marker D5S416), 9 (LOD=2.05 at 51 cM, between markers D9S171 and D9S161) and 11 (LOD=1.91 at 9 cM, marker D11S1338); and for %MMA on chromosome 9 (LOD=2.10 at 162 cM, marker D9S158) (Figure 1 and Supplemental Material, Figure S2). The correction constants for computing empirical LOD scores were 0.99 for %iAs, 0.87 for %MMA and 0.92 for %DMA. Thus, the adjusted LOD scores for %iAs remained very similar to the original scores (2.01, 2.03 and 1.89 for %iAs on chromosomes 5, 9 and 11, respectively), whereas the adjusted

LOD for %MMA on chromosome 9 decreased to a greater extent (adjusted LOD=1.83). A peak for %DMA on chromosome 10 within 2 megabases of *AS3MT* did not reach the level of suggestive evidence in favor of QTLs (LOD=1.80 at 125 cM, between markers D10S192 and D10S597) (Figure 1 and Supplemental Material, Figure S2).

In analyses stratified by geographic region, the peak in chromosome 5, the two peaks in chromosome 9 and the peak in chromosome 10 were smaller but present in all the 3 regions (see Supplemental Material, Figure S2). There were also differences by region. In Oklahoma there was suggestive evidence in favor of an additional QTL for %MMA on chromosome 18 (LOD=2.21 at 22 cM, markers D18S63 and D18S452) and for %DMA on chromosome 19 (LOD=2.29 at 79 cM, marker D19S902). In North and South Dakota there were suggestive peaks for %MMA and %DMA on chromosome 12 (LOD=1.89 at 56 cM and 2.93 at 61 cM, respectively, markers D12S345 and D12S85) and for %DMA on chromosome 16 (LOD=1.95, at 39 cM, marker D16S3103).

DISCUSSION

This population-based study in American Indian communities from Arizona, Oklahoma and North and South Dakota supports a genetic contribution to variability in the distribution of urine arsenic metabolites. The heritability of urine arsenic metabolites ranged between 50% for % MMA and 59% for % DMA, with no major differences by study region. Based on a QTL linkage scan in a subset of our study population, we identified several genetic loci that may contribute to the pattern of urine arsenic metabolites. The presence of multiple loci indicates that, as suspected, multiple genes may be involved. Our unbiased discovery approach identified potential areas of the genome that may be related to metabolic processes and excretion of arsenic

species in urine. Several biologically plausible genes (Hernandez and Marcos 2008) were located in those areas, including 3 histone methyltransferases (PR domain zinc finger protein 9 (*PRDM9*) on chromosome 5, histone methyltransferase *EHMT1* on chromosome 9, and ribosome RNA-processing protein 8 (*RRP8*) on chromosome 11) and one aquaglyceroporin, aquaglyceropin 3 (*AQP3*) on chromosome 9. The peak for %DMA on chromosome 10 was within 2 megabases of *AS3MT* but did not reach the level of suggestive evidence. Larger linkage studies and fine mapping are needed to confirm the relevance of these findings and to identify the genes and variants related to arsenic methylation patterns in urine.

In human populations, arsenic metabolism is commonly studied by measuring the relative proportion of inorganic and methylated arsenic metabolites in urine (Vahter 2000). Determinants of arsenic metabolism include sex, smoking, alcohol intake, nutritional status, body mass index and race/ethnicity (Gamble et al. 2005; Gomez-Rubio et al. 2011; Gomez-Rubio et al. 2012; Hopenhayn-Rich et al. 1996a; Hsueh et al. 2003; Navas-Acien et al. 2009; Steinmaus et al. 2005). Men, smokers, people who drink alcohol, and people with nutritional deficiencies have higher % MMA and lower % DMA in urine (Gamble et al. 2005; Hsueh et al. 2003; Navas-Acien et al. 2009). Nutritional deficiencies, especially low folate and selenium levels, have been associated with lower arsenic methylation capacity, and could play an important role in arsenic toxicity (Christian et al. 2006; Gamble et al. 2006; Heck et al. 2007; Hsueh et al. 2003). Obesity and indigenous American ancestry on the other hand have been associated with increased % DMA in urine (Gomez-Rubio et al. 2011; Gomez-Rubio et al. 2012). Studies on the role of arsenic exposure levels in arsenic metabolism have been inconsistent. Some studies have shown no relationship between exposure levels and methylation patterns (Hopenhayn-Rich et al. 1996a; Hopenhayn-Rich et al. 1996b). Others have found increasing arsenic levels in drinking water

were associated with higher %MMA and lower %DMA in urine (Heck et al. 2007; Lindberg et al. 2008). In our study, at low-moderate arsenic exposure levels, the distribution of arsenic species was similar for participants with urine total arsenic concentrations below and above the median. Non-genetic factors could result in false positives in a linkage study if they mimic Mendelian patterns, an unlikely occurrence. Regarding indigenous American ancestry, our findings are consistent with those from Andean (Engstrom et al. 2010; Hopenhayn-Rich et al. 1996b; Vahter et al. 1995) and Northwest Mexican (Gomez-Rubio et al. 2012) communities characterized by higher % DMA in urine compared to populations in Europe and Asia (Chiou et al. 1997; Gamble et al. 2005; Kile et al. 2011; Lindberg et al. 2007). The different arsenic methylation profile in American Indian populations could be partly genetically determined.

A number of studies have estimated associations of genetic polymorphisms with arsenic metabolism in different populations (Chiou et al. 1997; Engstrom et al. 2011; Gomez-Rubio et al. 2010; Hernandez et al. 2008; Hernandez and Marcos 2008; Lindberg et al. 2007; McCarty et al. 2007; Meza et al. 2005; Schlawicke et al. 2007; Schlawicke et al. 2009; Vahter 2000), as measured by the relative distribution of inorganic and methylated metabolites in urine. So far, those studies have evaluated only a limited number of polymorphisms, and no genome wide scans, using either SNPs or microsatellite markers (STR), are available. Polymorphisms in *AS3MT* have been associated with urine arsenic metabolites in populations in Argentina (Engstrom et al. 2011; Schlawicke et al. 2007; Schlawicke et al. 2009), Chile (Hernandez et al. 2008), Mexico (Gomez-Rubio et al. 2010; Meza et al. 2005), Bangladesh (Engstrom et al. 2011), and Central Europe (Lindberg et al. 2007). Moreover, the functional relevance of *AS3MT* is well established (Chen et al. 2011; Drobna et al. 2006; Thomas et al. 2004; Wood et al. 2006). In our study, the peak on chromosome 10 close to *AS3MT* did not reach the level of suggestive

evidence for linkage, and larger linkage studies within the overall Strong Heart Family Study population, as well as association studies, are needed to further evaluate the relevance of AS3MT in our population. Recently, another methyltransferase, N-6 adenine-specific DNA methyltransferase (N6AMTI), was shown in vitro to methylate arsenic in human urothelial cells (Ren et al. 2011). However, there was no evidence of a peak in the vicinity of this gene, which is located on chromosome 21, in our linkage scan. Some of the peaks in our study, however, were within 2 megabases of histone methyltransferases (*PRDM9*, *EHMT1* and *RRP8*). In Oklahoma, the peak for %MMA on chromosome 18 was close to RNA methyltransferase (RNMT) and in North and South Dakota the peaks for %MMA and %DMA on chromosome 12 were close to methyltransferase-like 20 (METTL20). The possible role of these methylatransferases in arsenic metabolism has not been previously evaluated. The localization of QTLs in gene regions encompassing several histone methyltransferases is interesting given the increasingly recognized connections between arsenic and epigenetic modifications including histone methylation and acetylation (Arita and Costa, 2009; Baccarelli and Bollati, 2009; Hou et al., 2012; Martinez-Zamudio and Ha, 2011).

In addition to methyltransferases, other genes have been suggested to play a role in arsenic metabolism, including glutathione and glutathione transferase genes, one-carbon metabolism and reduction genes, purine nucleoside phosphorylase genes and transporter genes (Hernandez and Marcos 2008). Transporter genes could be important for the absorption and excretion of inorganic arsenic species (Hernandez and Marcos 2008). In our study, we found a peak for % iAs within 2 megabases of *AQP3* on chromosome 9. *In vitro* studies have shown that uptake of inorganic trivalent arsenicals is facilitated by several AQP cell membrane proteins (Calatayud 2012; Liu et al. 2002; Liu et al. 2004). *In vivo*, *AQP9*-null mice had reduced arsenic

clearance (Carbrey JM 2009). In humans, polymorphisms in *AQP3* have recently been related to increased bladder cancer risk in individuals from New Hampshire exposed to arsenic in drinking water (Lesseur et al. 2012). Human studies are needed to evaluate the association of aquaglyceroporin polymorphisms with urine arsenic metabolites.

Our study has a number of limitations. First, the sample size for the linkage scan was small, particularly when stratified by region. Although the results of the heritability analyses were similar across the 3 regions, a larger study sample would be needed to confirm the consistency of the QTL linkage scan across regions and to evaluate gene-environment interactions by other characteristics such as arsenic exposure and sex. Ongoing arsenic speciation analysis in all SHFS participants and additional genetic analysis of a panel of polymorphisms in candidate genes potentially related to arsenic metabolism, including those informed by the present study, will allow us to determine if the linkages observed remain in the larger population as well as to study potential gene-environment interactions for arsenic related health effects.

A second limitation is that only one measurement of urine arsenic was available, though we confirmed the relative constancy of urine arsenic methylation patterns over a 10 year period in a pilot study of the same population (Navas-Acien et al. 2009). In addition, we could not determine if the loci associated with arsenic methylation patterns in urine were also associated with methylation patterns in other tissues or fluids, for instance blood. Also, as in other linkage scans, peaks included relatively large genomic regions and substantial uncertainty remains regarding the specific genes involved. Finally, our population was exposed to low-moderate arsenic levels (from <10 to >50 μ g/L in drinking water) and the relevance of the findings at different exposure levels is unknown. Strengths of the study include the availability of highly informative complex pedigrees for evaluating genetic determinants, the large sample size for the

heritability analysis, and the high quality standardized protocols used to recruit participants, conduct interviews and physical examinations, collect biological specimens, and perform laboratory analyses to measure arsenic species using highly sensitive methods (Lee et al. 1990; Scheer et al. 2012).

In conclusion, our heritability analysis and preliminary genome-wide linkage scan supports the hypothesis that genetic variation across the genome contributes substantially to the variability of urine arsenic methylation patterns in urine. The discovery and characterization of genes involved in arsenic metabolism is an important area of research as arsenic methylation patterns in urine have been related to cancer and cardiovascular disease risk (Chen et al. 2003; Del Razo et al. 1997; Hsueh et al. 1997; Kile et al. 2011; Steinmaus et al. 2006; Wu et al. 2006; Yu et al. 2000). Additional epidemiologic and experimental studies are needed to identify specific variants that are related to arsenic metabolism, confirm the findings in different populations, evaluate the function of potentially novel candidate genes such as histone methyltransferases and aquaglyceroporins, and evaluate the role of arsenic metabolism genes and of arsenic-gene interactions in arsenic related toxicity and health effects.

REFERENCES

- Almasy L, Blangero J. 1998. Multipoint quantitative-trait linkage analysis in general pedigrees. Am J Hum Genet 62:1198-1211.
- Amos CI. 1994. Robust variance-components approach for assessing genetic linkage in pedigrees. Am J Hum Genet 54:535-543.
- Arita, A. and Costa, M. 2009. Epigenetics in metal carcinogenesis: nickel, arsenic, chromium and cadmium. Metallomics 1:222-8.
- Baccarelli, A. and Bollati, V. (2009). Epigenetics and environmental chemicals. Curr Opin Pediatr 21(2), 243-51.
- Almasy L, Blangero J, Dyer T, Goering HH, Peterson C, Williams JT. 2012. SOLAR: Sequential oligogenic linkage analysis routines. http://txbiomed.org/departments/genetics-genetics-detail?r=37. Accessed January 8, 2013.
- Calatayud M, Barrios JA, Velez D, Devesa V. 2012. In Vitro Study of Transporters Involved in Intestinal Absorption of Inorganic Arsenic. Chem Res Toxicol 25:446-53.
- Carbrey JM, Song L, Zhou Y, Yoshinaga M, Rojek A, Wang Y et al. 2009. Reduced arsenic clearance and increased toxicity in aquaglyceroporin-9-null mice. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 106:15956-60.
- Chen B, Arnold LL, Cohen SM, Thomas DJ, Le XC. 2011. Mouse arsenic (+3 oxidation state) methyltransferase genotype affects metabolism and tissue dosimetry of arsenicals after arsenite administration in drinking water. Toxicol Sci 124:320-326.
- Chen YC, Su HJ, Guo YL, Hsueh YM, Smith TJ, Ryan LM et al. 2003. Arsenic methylation and bladder cancer risk in Taiwan. Cancer Causes Control 14:303-310.
- Chiou HY, Hsueh YM, Hsieh LL, Hsu LI, Hsu YH, Hsieh FI et al. 1997. Arsenic methylation capacity, body retention, and null genotypes of glutathione S-transferase M1 and T1 among current arsenic-exposed residents in Taiwan. Mutat Res 386:197-207.
- Christian WJ, Hopenhayn C, Centeno JA, Todorov T. 2006. Distribution of urinary selenium and arsenic among pregnant women exposed to arsenic in drinking water. Environ Res 100:115-122.

- Chung JS, Kalman DA, Moore LE, Kosnett MJ, Arroyo AP, Beeris M et al. 2002. Family correlations of arsenic methylation patterns in children and parents exposed to high concentrations of arsenic in drinking water. Environ Health Perspect 110:729-733.
- Cullen WR, Reimer KJ. 1989. Arsenic Speciation in the Environment. Chemical Reviews 89:713-764.
- Del Razo LM, Garcia-Vargas GG, Vargas H, Albores A, Gonsebatt ME, Montero R et al. 1997. Altered profile of urinary arsenic metabolites in adults with chronic arsenicism. A pilot study. Arch Toxicol 71:211-217.
- Drobna Z, Xing W, Thomas DJ, Styblo M. 2006. shRNA silencing of AS3MT expression minimizes arsenic methylation capacity of HepG2 cells. Chem Res Toxicol 19:894-898.
- Dyke B. A pedigree data management system. User's manual. http://www.bioinformatics.uthscsa.edu/www/PSManual.pdf. 1999. Accessed 2-14-2012.
- Engstrom K, Vahter M, Mlakar SJ, Concha G, Nermell B, Raqib R et al. 2011. Polymorphisms in arsenic(+III oxidation state) methyltransferase (AS3MT) predict gene expression of AS3MT as well as arsenic metabolism. Environ Health Perspect 119:182-188.
- Engstrom KS, Vahter M, Lindh C, Teichert F, Singh R, Concha G et al. 2010. Low 8-oxo-7,8-dihydro-2'-deoxyguanosine levels and influence of genetic background in an Andean population exposed to high levels of arsenic. Mutat Res 683:98-105.
- Franklin M, Koutrakis P, Schwartz P. 2008. The role of particle composition on the association between PM2.5 and mortality. Epidemiology 19:680-689.
- Gamble MV, Liu X, Ahsan H, Pilsner JR, Ilievski V, Slavkovich V et al. 2006. Folate and arsenic metabolism: a double-blind, placebo-controlled folic acid-supplementation trial in Bangladesh. Am J Clin Nutr 84:1093-1101.
- Gamble MV, Liu X, Ahsan H, Pilsner JR, Ilievski V, Slavkovich V et al. 2005. Folate, homocysteine, and arsenic metabolism in arsenic-exposed individuals in Bangladesh. Environ Health Perspect 113:1683-1688.
- Gilbert-Diamond D, Cottingham KL, Gruber JF, Punshon T, Sayarath V, Gandolfi AJ et al. 2011. Rice consumption contributes to arsenic exposure in US women. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 108:20656-20660.

- Gomez-Rubio P, Klimentidis YC, Cantu-Soto E, Meza-Montenegro MM, Billheimer D, Lu Z et al. 2012. Indigenous American ancestry is associated with arsenic methylation efficiency in an admixed population of northwest Mexico. J Toxicol Environ Health A 75:36-49.
- Gomez-Rubio P, Meza-Montenegro MM, Cantu-Soto E, Klimecki WT. 2010. Genetic association between intronic variants in AS3MT and arsenic methylation efficiency is focused on a large linkage disequilibrium cluster in chromosome 10. J Appl Toxicol 30:260-270.
- Gomez-Rubio P, Roberge J, Arendell L, Harris RB, O'Rourke MK, Chen Z et al. 2011.

 Association between body mass index and arsenic methylation efficiency in adult women from southwest U.S. and northwest Mexico. Toxicol Appl Pharmacol 252:176-182.
- Heath SC. 1997. Markov chain Monte Carlo segregation and linkage analysis for oligogenic models. Am J Hum Genet 61:748-760.
- Heath SC, Snow GL, Thompson EA, Tseng C, Wijsman EM. 1997. MCMC segregation and linkage analysis. Genet Epidemiol 14:1011-1016.
- Heck JE, Gamble MV, Chen Y, Graziano JH, Slavkovich V, Parvez F et al. 2007. Consumption of folate-related nutrients and metabolism of arsenic in Bangladesh. Am J Clin Nutr 85:1367-1374.
- Hernandez A, Marcos R. 2008. Genetic variations associated with interindividual sensitivity in the response to arsenic exposure. Pharmacogenomics 9:1113-1132.
- Hernandez A, Xamena N, Sekaran C, Tokunaga H, Sampayo-Reyes A, Quinteros D et al. 2008. High arsenic metabolic efficiency in AS3MT287Thr allele carriers. Pharmacogenet Genomics 18:349-355.
- Hopenhayn-Rich C, Biggs ML, Kalman DA, Moore LE, Smith AH. 1996. Arsenic methylation patterns before and after changing from high to lower concentrations of arsenic in drinking water. Environ Health Perspect 104:1200-1207.
- Hopenhayn-Rich C, Biggs ML, Smith AH, Kalman DA, Moore LE. 1996. Methylation study of a population environmentally exposed to arsenic in drinking water. Environ Health Perspect 104:620-628.
- Hou, L., Zhang, X., Wang, D. and Baccarelli, A. 2012. Environmental chemical exposures and human epigenetics. International Journal of Epidemiology 41, 79-105.

- Hsueh YM, Chiou HY, Huang YL, Wu WL, Huang CC, Yang MH. 1997. Serum beta-carotene level, arsenic methylation capability, and incidence of skin cancer. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 6:589-596.
- Hsueh YM, Ko YF, Huang YK, Chen HW, Chiou HY, Huang YL et al. 2003. Determinants of inorganic arsenic methylation capability among residents of the Lanyang Basin, Taiwan: arsenic and selenium exposure and alcohol consumption. Toxicol Lett 137:49-63.
- Kile ML, Hoffman E, Rodrigues EG, Breton CV, Quamruzzaman Q, Rahman M et al. 2011. A pathway-based analysis of urinary arsenic metabolites and skin lesions. Am J Epidemiol 173:778-786.
- Lander E, Kruglyak L. 1995. Genetic dissection of complex traits: guidelines for interpreting and reporting linkage results. Nat Genet 11:241-247.
- Lee ET, Welty TK, Fabsitz R, Cowan LD, Le NA, Oopik AJ et al. 1990. The Strong Heart Study. A study of cardiovascular disease in American Indians: design and methods. Am J Epidemiol 132:1141-1155.
- Lesseur C, Gilbert-Diamond D, Andrew AS, Ekstrom RM, Li Z, Kelsey KT et al. 2012. A case-control study of polymorphisms in xenobiotic and arsenic metabolism genes and arsenic-related bladder cancer in New Hampshire. Toxicol Lett 210:100-106.
- Lindberg AL, Ekstrom EC, Nermell B, Rahman M, Loennerdal B, Persson LA et al. 2008. Gender and age differences in the metabolism of inorganic arsenic in a highly exposed population in Bangladesh. Environ Res 106:110-120.
- Lindberg AL, Kumar R, Goessler W, Thirumaran R, Gurzau E, Koppova K et al. 2007.

 Metabolism of low-dose inorganic arsenic in a central European population: influence of sex and genetic polymorphisms. Environ Health Perspect 115:1081-1086.
- Liu Z, Carbrey JM, Agre P, Rosen BP. 2004. Arsenic trioxide uptake by human and rat aquaglyceroporins. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 316:1178-1185.
- Liu Z, Shen J, Carbrey JM, Mukhopadhyay R, Agre P, Rosen BP. 2002. Arsenite transport by mammalian aquaglyceroporins AQP7 and AQP9. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 99:6053-6058.
- Martinez-Zamudio, R. and Ha, H. C. 2011. Environmental epigenetics in metal exposure. Epigenetics 6, 820-827.

- McCarty KM, Chen YC, Quamruzzaman Q, Rahman M, Mahiuddin G, Hsueh YM et al. 2007. Arsenic methylation, GSTT1, GSTM1, GSTP1 polymorphisms, and skin lesions. Environ Health Perspect 115:341-345.
- McPeek MS, Sun L. 2000. Statistical tests for detection of misspecified relationships by use of genome-screen data. Am J Hum Genet 66:1076-1094.
- Meza MM, Yu L, Rodriguez YY, Guild MM, Thompson D, Gandolfi AJ et al. 2005.

 Developmentally restricted genetic determinants of human arsenic metabolism: association between urinary methylated arsenic and CYT19 polymorphisms in children. Environ Health Perspect 113:775-781.
- Naranmandura H, Suzuki N, Suzuki KT. 2006. Trivalent arsenicals are bound to proteins during reductive methylation. Chem Res Toxicol 19:1010-1018.
- Navas-Acien A, Umans JG, Howard BV, Goessler W, Francesconi KA, Crainiceanu CM et al. 2009. Urine arsenic concentrations and species excretion patterns in American Indian communities over a 10-year period: the Strong Heart Study. Environ Health Perspect 117:1428-1433.
- Nordstrom DK. 2002. Public health Worldwide occurrences of arsenic in ground water. Science 296:2143-2145.
- North KE, Howard BV, Welty TK, Best LG, Lee ET, Fabsitz RR et al. 2003. Genetic and environmental contributions to cardiovascular disease risk in American Indians: the strong heart family study. Am J Epidemiol 157:303-314.
- Pierce BL, Kibriya MG, Tong L, Jasmine F, Argos M, Roy S et al. Genome-wide association study identifies chromosome 10q24.32 variants associated with arsenic metabolism and toxicity phenotypes in Bangladesh. Plos genetics 2012;8:e1002522.
- Ren X, Aleshin M, Jo WJ, Dills R, Kalman DA, Vulpe CD et al. 2011. Involvement of N-6 adenine-specific DNA methyltransferase 1 (N6AMT1) in arsenic biomethylation and its role in arsenic-induced toxicity. Environ Health Perspect 119:771-777.
- Scheer J, Findenig S, Goessler W, Francesconi KA, Howard B, Umans JG et al. 2012. Arsenic species and selected metals in human urine: validation of HPLC/ICPMS and ICPMS procedures for a long-term population-based epidemiological study. Anal Methods 4:406-413.

- Schlawicke EK, Broberg K, Concha G, Nermell B, Warholm M, Vahter M et al. 2007. Genetic polymorphisms influencing arsenic metabolism: evidence from Argentina. Environ Health Perspect 115:599-605.
- Schlawicke EK, Nermell B, Concha G, Stromberg U, Vahter M, Broberg K et al. 2009. Arsenic metabolism is influenced by polymorphisms in genes involved in one-carbon metabolism and reduction reactions. Mutat Res 667:4-14.
- Sobel E, Papp JC, Lange K. 2002. Detection and integration of genotyping errors in statistical genetics. Am J Hum Genet 70:496-508.
- Steinmaus C, Bates MN, Yuan Y, Kalman D, Atallah R, Rey OA et al. 2006. Arsenic methylation and bladder cancer risk in case-control studies in Argentina and the United States. J Occup Environ Med 48:478-488.
- Steinmaus C, Carrigan K, Kalman D, Atallah R, Yuan Y, Smith AH et al. 2005. Dietary intake and arsenic methylation in a U.S. population. Environ Health Perspect 113:1153-1159.
- Sun L, Wilder K, McPeek MS. 2002. Enhanced pedigree error detection. Hum Hered 54:99-110.
- Thomas DJ, Waters SB, Styblo M. 2004. Elucidating the pathway for arsenic methylation. Toxicol Appl Pharmacol 198:319-326.
- US National Heart Lung and Blood Institute. Mammalian genotyping service. http://research.marshfieldclinic.org/genetics/home/index.asp. 2012. Accessed 2-14-2012.
- Vahter M. 2000. Genetic polymorphism in the biotransformation of inorganic arsenic and its role in toxicity. Toxicol Lett 112-113:209-217.
- ---- 2002. Mechanisms of arsenic biotransformation. Toxicology 181-182:211-217.
- Vahter M, Concha G, Nermell B, Nilsson R, Dulout F, Natarajan AT et al. 1995. A unique metabolism of inorganic arsenic in native Andean women. Eur J Pharmacol 293:455-462.
- Wood TC, Salavagionne OE, Mukherjee B, Wang L, Klumpp AF, Thomae BA et al. 2006. Human arsenic methyltransferase (AS3MT) pharmacogenetics: gene resequencing and functional genomics studies. J Biol Chem 281:7364-7373.
- Wu MM, Chiou HY, Hsueh YM, Hong CT, Su CL, Chang SF et al. 2006. Effect of plasma homocysteine level and urinary monomethylarsonic acid on the risk of arsenic-associated carotid atherosclerosis. Toxicol Appl Pharmacol 216:168-175.
- Yu RC, Hsu KH, Chen CJ, Froines JR. 2000. Arsenic methylation capacity and skin cancer. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 9:1259-1262.

Table 1. Characteristics of Strong Heart Study participants with at least one relative within the cohort^a

	Arizona	Oklahoma	North/South Dakota	Overall
Total (N)	1,259	1,139	509	2,907
Age (years)	55.4 (0.2)	56.6 (0.2)	56.0 (0.4)	56.0 (0.1)
Sex (% males)	36.2 (1.4)	43.7 (1.5)	43.8 (2.2)	40.5 (0.9)
Education (% <high school)<="" td=""><td>60.8 (1.4)</td><td>30.5 (1.4)</td><td>47.9 (2.2)</td><td>46.6 (0.9)</td></high>	60.8 (1.4)	30.5 (1.4)	47.9 (2.2)	46.6 (0.9)
BMI (kg/m^2)	36.5 (0.2)	30.7 (0.2)	29.9 (0.3)	31.4 (0.1)
Smoking status (%)				
Former	35.1 (1.4)	36.1 (1.4)	30.5 (2.0)	35.3 (0.9)
Current	19.5 (1.1)	35.1 (1.4)	46.6 (2.2)	30.4 (0.9)
Current alcohol drinkers (%)				
Former	39.6 (1.4)	45.4 (1.5)	38.2 (2.2)	41.7 (0.9)
Current	41.9 (1.4)	37.9 (1.4)	50.9 (2.2)	41.9 (0.9)
Total arsenic $(\mu g/g)^b$	18.5 (12.5, 27.2)	8.2 (5.6, 12.9)	12.5 (8.2, 18.9)	12.9 (7.9, 21.0)
Arsenobetaine (µg/g) ^b	0.8 (0.5, 1.7)	0.7 (0.4, 1.8)	0.5 (0.3, 1.0)	0.7 (0.4, 1.6)
Urine selenium $(\mu g/g)^b$	48.0 (36.5, 64.3)	42.2 (33.9, 55.4)	63.7 (47.4, 85.3)	47.7 (36.1, 64.9)

^aPercentages (standard errors) for categorical variables or means (standard errors) for continuous variables.

^bMedian (Interquartile range).

Total arsenic was measured directly using inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICPMS, see methods section).

Table 2. Median (interquartile range) of percentage urine arsenic species in the Strong Heart Study participants with at least one relative within the cohort

	N	% Inorganic As	% MMA	% DMA
Overall	2,907	7.7 (5.4, 10.7)	13.6 (10.5, 17.1)	78.4 (72.5, 83.1)
Age, years				
≤55	1,481	8.3 (5.8, 11.2)	13.6 (10.4, 17.2)	77.8 (72.1, 82.8)
>55	1,426	7.2 (5.1, 10.1)	13.6 (10.6, 17.0)	79.1 (73.0, 83.5)
Sex				
Men	1,177	9.2 (6.4, 12.7)	15.4 (12.1, 18.9)	75.0 (68.8, 80.7)
Women	1,730	6.9 (4.9, 9.4)	12.6 (9.6, 15.7)	80.2 (75.3, 84.4)
Study region				
Arizona	1,259	8.6 (6.1, 11.5)	13.3 (10.4, 16.4)	78.0 (72.6, 82.5)
Oklahoma	1,139	6.6 (4.6, 9.3)	13.3 (10.2, 16.8)	79.6 (74.0, 84.3)
Dakotas	509	8.1 (5.9, 11.5)	15.3 (11.9, 19.4)	76.5 (69.2, 81.6)
Education				
> 12 years	1,551	7.4 (5.3, 10.6)	13.5 (10.3, 16.9)	78.7 (72.7, 83.5)
\leq 12 years	1,356	8.1 (5.7, 11.0)	13.6 (10.8, 17.3)	78.2 (72.2, 82.6)
BMI, kg/m ²				
<30	1,329	8.3 (5.7, 11.4)	15.2 (11.8, 18.6)	76.4 (70.2, 81.3)
≥ 30	1,578	7.3 (5.3, 10.1)	12.5 (9.7, 15.6)	79.9 (74.5, 84.2)
Smoking				
Never	998	7.3 (5.3, 10.0)	13.2 (10.0, 16.0)	79.4 (74.2, 83.7)
Former	1,026	7.6 (5.3, 10.5)	13.3 (10.4, 16.9)	78.8 (72.9, 83.7)
Current	883	8.6 (5.8, 11.8)	14.8 (11.2, 18.6)	76.6 (70.1, 81.8)
Alcohol drinkii	ng			
Never	476	7.1 (5.2, 9.5)	13.4 (10.5, 16.3)	79.6 (74.0, 83.4)
Former	1,212	7.5 (5.3, 10.7)	13.6 (10.5, 17.0)	78.4 (72.6, 83.5)
Current	1,219	8.2 (5.7, 11.2)	13.7 (10.5, 17.5)	77.8 (71.7, 82.8)
Total Arsenic,	μg/g ^a			
< 12.9	1,452	7.3 (5.2, 10.1)	14.3 (11.2, 17.8)	78.2 (72.3, 82.7)
≥ 12.9	1,455	8.2 (5.8, 11.4)	13.0 (9.9, 16.4)	78.8 (72.7, 83.5)
Arsenobetaine,	$\mu g/g^a$			
< 0.7	1,448	8.0 (5.7, 10.9)	14.3 (11.0, 17.6)	77.6 (71.9, 82.2)
≥ 0.7	1,459	7.5 (5.1, 10.5)	13.1 (10.0, 16.5)	79.4 (73.5, 83.9)
Urine selenium				
< 47.7	1,452	7.8 (5.4, 11.0)	14.2 (10.9, 17.7)	77.7 (71.6, 82.6)
\geq 47.7	1,455	7.7 (5.5, 10.5)	13.1 (10.1, 16.3)	79.1 (73.5, 83.5)

^aThe cut-off is the median.

For BMI we selected 30 kg/m2, a cut-off commonly used to classify individuals as obese and non-obese. For education we selected 12 years of education, as at least 12 years of education is consistent with the completion of high school.

Total arsenic was measured directly using inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICPMS, see methods section).

Table 3. Heritability of urine arsenic metabolites in Strong Heart Study participants with relatives within the original cohort

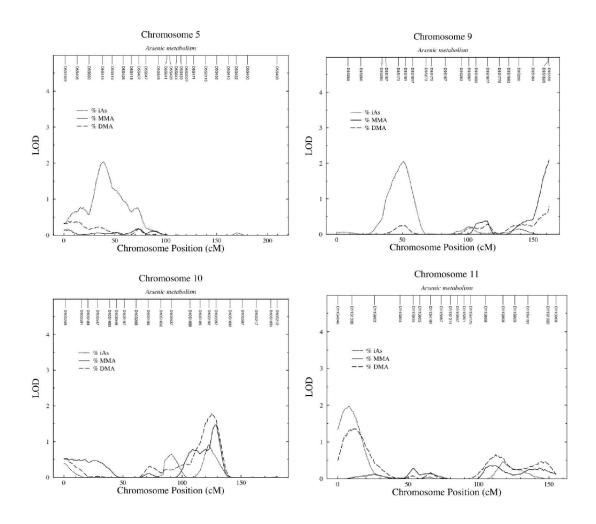
	Heritability (SE)	P-value	% Variance explained by covariables			
Overall (N=2,907)						
% iAs	0.53 (0.07)	< 0.001	15.5%			
% MMA	0.50(0.07)	< 0.001	19.4%			
% DMA	0.59 (0.06)	< 0.001	20.4%			
Arizona (N=1,259)						
% iAs	0.46 (0.12)	< 0.001	11.8%			
% MMA	0.51 (0.12)	< 0.001	15.1%			
% DMA	0.60 (0.11)	< 0.001	16.4%			
Oklahoma (N=1,139)						
% iAs	0.50 (0.12)	< 0.001	10.6%			
% MA	0.53 (0.11)	< 0.001	22.6%			
% DMA	0.62 (0.10)	< 0.001	20.9%			
North and South Dakota (N=509)						
% iAs	0.60(0.11)	< 0.001	19.6%			
% MMA	0.36 (0.12)	0.001	19.9%			
% DMA	0.55 (0.11)	< 0.001	23.4%			

Adjusted for age, age², sex, age*sex, age*sex, smoking status (never, former, current), education (> 12 years, \leq 12 years), body mass index (<30 and \geq 30 kg/m²), alcohol status (never, former, current), location (Dakotas, Oklahoma and Arizona) and total arsenic (log μ g/g). Residual kurtosis ranged from -0.14 to -0.04. The number of pair relationships in the overall sample is distributed as follows: 93 parent-offspring; 1,142 siblings; 271 avuncular; 73 half siblings; 3 double 1st cousins; 4 grand avuncular; 32 half avuncular; 172 1st cousins; 9 half 1st cousins and half 2nd cousins; 13 1st cousins once removed (1 rem); 9 half 1st cousins; 9 half 1st cousins, 1 rem and half 2nd cousins, 1 rem.

Figure legend

Figure 1. LOD scores on Chromosomes 5, 9, 10 and 11 for urine arsenic metabolites in Strong Heart Study participants with STR marker genotype (N=487). Models were adjusted for age, age², sex, age*sex, age²*sex, smoking status (never, former, current), education (> 12 years, ≤ 12 years), alcohol drinking status (never, former, current), body mass index (<30 and ≥30 kg/m2), location (Dakotas, Oklahoma and Arizona) and total arsenic (log μg/g). Residual kurtosis was - 0.14 for % inorganic arsenic, %MMA and %DMA. The number of pair relationships among the 487 participants was distributed as follows: 33 parent-offspring; 268 siblings; 93 avuncular; 36 half siblings; 2 double 1st cousins; 3 grand avuncular; 19 half avuncular; 87 1st cousins; 9 half 1st cousins and half 2nd cousins; 8 1st cousins once removed (1 rem); 5 half 1st cousins; 6 half 1st cousins, 1 rem and half 2nd cousins, 1 rem.

Figure 1. LOD scores on Chromosomes 5, 9, 10 and 11 for urine arsenic metabolites in Strong Heart Study participants with STR marker genotype (N=487)



Models were adjusted for age, age², sex, age*sex, age²*sex, smoking status (never, former, current), education (> 12 years, \leq 12 years), alcohol drinking status (never, former, current), body mass index (\leq 30 and \geq 30 kg/m2), location (Dakotas, Oklahoma and Arizona) and total arsenic (log μ g/g). Residual kurtosis was -0.14 for % inorganic arsenic, %MMA and %DMA. The number of pair relationships among the 487 participants was distributed as follows: 33 parent-offspring; 268 siblings; 93 avuncular (uncle/aunt); 36 half siblings; 2 double 1st cousins; 3 grand avuncular; 19 half avuncular; 87 1st cousins; 9 half 1st cousins and half 2nd cousins; 8 1st cousins once removed (1 rem); 5 half 1st cousins; 6 half 1st cousins, 1 rem and half 2nd cousins, 1 rem.